

16, 1864

SUPPLEMENT.

The Mining Journal, RAILWAY AND COMMERCIAL GAZETTE

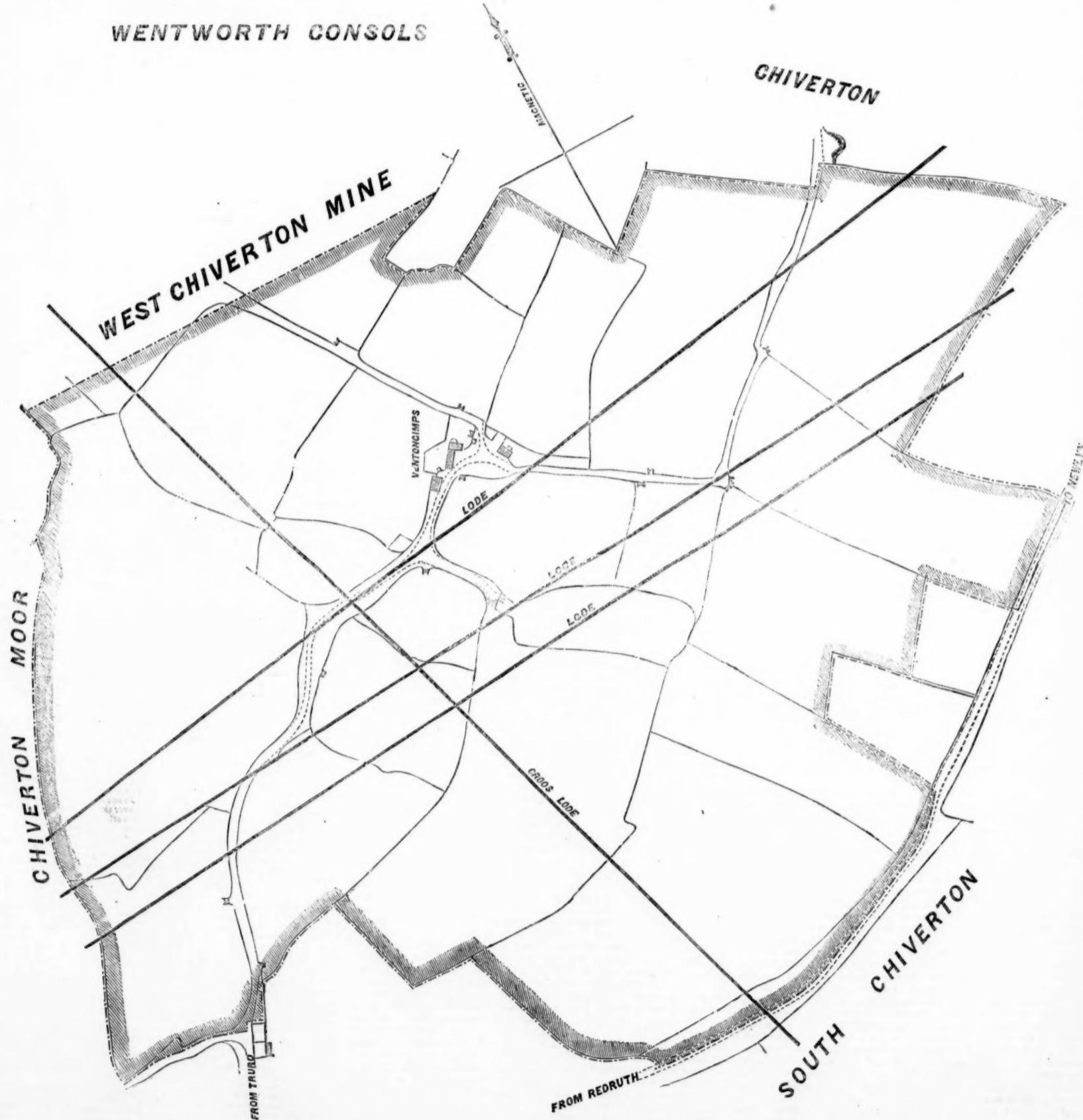
FORMING A COMPLETE RECORD OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF ALL PUBLIC COMPANIES.

No. 1495.—VOL. XXXIV.]

LONDON, SATURDAY, APRIL 16, 1864.

[WITH JOURNAL] STAMPED... SIXPENCE.
UNSTAMPED. FIVEPENCE.

PLAN OF THE GREAT SOUTH CHIVERTON MINING DISTRICT.



The seat delineated in the above plan is situated in the parish of Perranporth, in Cornwall, and is upwards of 600 fms. in length, by 400 fms. wide. The district has proved to be one of the richest in lead in Corn-

wall, and the recent improvements in West Chiverton Mine, adjoining,

Company, as well as a report of a meeting of adventurers therein, will be found in another column of this day's Journal, from which it will be seen that the property is one of the most attractive in the district.

THE VENTILATION OF MINES.*

ON THE APPLICATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF AIR CURRENTS.

Having mentioned some of the inconveniences from foul air and noxious gases which miners have to contend with in all underground operations, and to get rid of, either by sweeping them out of the workings, or to destroy their vitiating power by throwing in an excess of pure air, there remains now to be considered under this subject of ventilating mines, the most important point; how is this current of air to be produced and applied? and in undertaking this branch of our subject it will be well to treat it under two heads.—1. The production of the current.—2. The distribution of the air through the mine.

A great mistake is commonly made by those who think that in the conception of some good machine for supplying a powerful current of air, the whole difficulty of ventilating mines is overcome. Nothing is more erroneous than this, for there may be a perfect hurricane blowing through a mine, and yet the workings hardly ventilated, through an imperfect application of the current of air. We can but consider it a most fortunate circumstance that Nature produces currents in many instances, and that she only requires to be aided to perform effectually the requirements of the miner; but although this may be often true, there are many cases where artificial currents are needed. These latter instances we will speak of afterwards. But, first, less us speak of those cases where we may trust to natural ventilation. Now, the simplest of all mining operations are those confined to an adit level; and if we examine what takes place in one of these simple workings we shall find that as we recede from the mouth of the level, the air becomes warmed by many causes, such as the respiration of the men, the combustion of the candles, &c.; this heated air becoming rarified, rises to the top of the level, and gradually forces its way out to the mouth of the adit, and as it flows out at the top it is replaced by cold air flowing in along the bottom. By applying the principle on which the current is here produced, a level may be carried a great distance. The air, however, is exposed to great friction, and unless the level be large and smooth we cannot expect to carry the current any great distance from the entrance. The same natural current which is set up in the case of the level, will be also set up in a shaft; in this case, however, the current will steal down the sides of the shaft, and pass up its centre.

Now, where there are two orifices to a mine, let us look into the kind of action, with reference to what takes place with regard to the air currents.

Let the two shafts, communicate beneath by a level, and suppose the ground at the surface slopes, so as to make one shaft deeper than the other; in the winter time we shall find under such circumstances, that the column of air is much colder in the shorter than in the longer shaft, and that the rarified air in the longer shaft will be pressed out by the greater weight of the air in the shorter shaft; thus a current of air will be induced, which will flow down the shorter and out of the longer shaft. Such, however, will not be the case all the year round, for in the summer time we shall find that the temperature of the atmosphere being higher than that of the workings, the current will be reversed to what it was in the winter. And at the time of the equinoxes, when the temperature of the air will be pretty much that of the mine, the air will become stagnant; and thus trusting to this sort of ventilation alone, becomes very dangerous. This stagnation is not an uncommon occurrence in some of the wretchedly managed collieries of the South of Staffordshire, where, trusting entirely to such ventilation, from the fighting of the air, as they call it, at certain seasons, the men are unable to work in the mine. Above all, to trust to this unaided and natural ventilation is peculiarly dangerous where there is fire-damp in the workings. Instances of this may be seen in some of the collieries of North Wales, where there are two pits, and the supply of air is dependent on the currents produced by Nature. Now, some parts of these collieries are fiery, others not so, and it is the custom to lead the air through the purer parts of the colliery first, and from thence to those parts from which the gas emanates, the men working near the downcast with naked lights, and near the upcast with safety-lamps. The air enters pure, but as it passes through the mine becomes fouled and explosive. Now, if from external causes the natural current should become reversed, as is quite possible in the height of summer, the foul air would flow back on the naked lights, and, probably, suffocate the men, or lead to a terrific explosion.

In undertaking the ventilation of a mine it should be remembered that the air after entering becomes rarefied in the heated workings, and that it increases in bulk in consequence of this, as well as from the addition of the gases it picks up in its course through the workings, so that when it makes its exit its volume is greatly augmented. In collieries the entering current of fresh air is called the "intake," the outgoing the "return," and the shaft through which the fresh air enters is called the "downcast," that through which the foul air escapes the "upcast." Now, there has been a great deal of discussion amongst practical colliers from time to time as to which shaft ought to be of the larger diameter, the upcast or the downcast, and most various are the opinions on the subject. To settle this much-vexed question, some experiments were made in stacks of different forms, some smaller at the base than at the top, others larger, and others of equal diameter throughout their length, and it was then found that the best results were obtained—i.e., the most powerful current was produced—in those stacks that were cylindrical. In Lincolnshire they commonly held that the upcast shaft ought to be smaller than the downcast, a notion that can only have arisen from observing the greater force of the current escaping where the upcast is the smaller of the two. In fact, when we consider that we have an expanded quantity of air to get rid of through the upcast, it stands to reason that that shaft ought to be the larger.

Let us see now what artificial aids can be brought to bear in assisting natural ventilation. In most metalliferous mines there is a sufficient current of air through the upper workings, and it is only at considerable depths that it is necessary to aid the natural currents to produce perfect ventilation. The natural current may be caused by one shaft being longer than the other from undulations of the ground at the surface, or from there being an adit communicating with one shaft. Now, where there is no such determining cause for a current, we may induce it by building over the mouth of one shaft a stack of stone, which has simply the effect of destroying the equilibrium of the air in the two shafts. This plan has been objected to on the ground that it renders the shaft over which the chimney is built useless for other purposes. The plan has been, however, most successful in many collieries, and where the shaft has been required for winding a simple modification has been adopted, which is to place the stack on the one side of the main shaft, and to make a communication between its base and the main shaft below the surface. The air is then made to pass along this channel, and thence up the chimney by a trap-door placed on the main shaft, which door is only open whilst winding or drawing is being carried on.

Another plan, formerly more common than now in the case of small mines, was that of putting over the shaft's mouth a "horse's head," or cowl, similar to those placed on the tops of chimneys. This cowl is supplied with a vane, which has the effect of bringing its orifice in such a direction that the wind blows into it, and so passes down into the workings. Sometimes the opposite shaft is fitted with another cowl, the vane of which is so arranged that the mouth of the orifice points away from the wind. This mode is one by which ventilation may often be assisted, and is one to be seen in many of the mines in the limestone of Flintshire. This brings us to the subject of air-pipes, which have been employed largely in some mines; as it also brings us to the subject of obtaining two channels for the air. Under this last head, it may be stated that when we find it a difficult matter to get two shafts in a mine we may divide the single one into two for ventilating purposes by brattices, and make one-half the upcast and the other half the downcast. Another device for the same purpose is to construct a small shaft by the side of the main one, and to divide it from the main one by a brick wall; this, however, is merely a modification of the plan of dividing the shaft itself by brickwork; and, like the preceding, is much inferior to the plan of having two shafts wherever it is possible.

In underground operations it is sometimes required to ventilate a long level, and to do this a common method, where the level is tolerably high, and its lower part convex, is to place over the hollow bottom a row of planks, and on these planks a covering of turf. By this means a good temporary air-way may be formed, but where permanent road is required the planks should be replaced by an arch of brick. Another plan in stratified ground is to cut out a trumpeting, or nich, at the side of the level, throughout its length, and to plank it up. Again, a more common method is that of placing along the level air-pipes or boxes. If the level is large, such air-boxes are usually made of thin plank, and fit into one another, the joints being rendered air-tight by well-tempered mud. The boxes are then cramped to the side of the level. Lead pipes have been attempted instead of wooden boxes, but are found to be very expensive. Zinc pipes are considered good for this purpose, and even papier mache

has been tried, but is found utterly useless, except where the level is quite dry. The best of all air-pipes are those made of cast-iron, and it is a pity they are not more employed for the purpose. All these contrivances, however, ought to be looked on as temporary, and subsidiary to the usual methods of our collieries, where we have two distinct and separate roads or passages for the air.

The nature of the ventilating apparatus will, of course, vary with the nature of the deposit in which the workings are situated. In working a thick seam of coal, such as the Dudley seam, the air-drift is commonly made at the side of the workings, and a great portion of the thickness of the coal lies above the level of the drift, so that when the coal is all worked away the foul air rises to the top and there remains. It was, therefore, proposed, and thought a wonderful idea, to carry the air-road above the main headings, and by this it was thought all explosions from the collection of foul air would be avoided. The discovery, if it may be called so, would, however, only apply to thick seams. The great mistake is, not so much in placing the air-road in any particular position, but rather in making it so absurdly small. In some of our coal mines the air-roads are carried through the adjoining shales; and, being imperfectly looked after, often become choked from the falling of the shale. This danger is so thoroughly recognised in the better managed collieries in the North of England that men are there especially appointed to keep the air-ways in good working order.

Natural ventilation may be most successfully employed in metalliferous mines where the shafts and levels are all of good size. The Great Laxey Mine is ventilated by no other means than what may be termed spontaneous ventilation, and there the temperature at the bottom of the mine is no higher than at the surface. We might cite other remarkable instances of perfect ventilation, by simply assisting the natural tendency of the air currents in a mine, and one especially may be mentioned—the long adit 220 fathoms under surface, and 3200 metres long, driven to unwater the mines of Schemitz; throughout its whole length there was no shaft communicating with the surface, and no ventilation but by natural currents properly applied. We may mention, as an instance of the successful application of natural currents to colliery ventilation, the Tyne Colliery, where the shaft was 672 feet deep. The temperature at the surface was 43° Fahr., at the bottom of the downcast shaft 46° Fahr., at the bottom of the upcast 63° Fahr., and the amount of air passed through the colliery per minute was 36,564 ft. The simplest mode of carrying out a ventilating current by this principle is that of increasing the temperature in one shaft.

The oldest device of this sort was that of lowering a fire into the upcast shaft whenever the direction of the current of air became uncertain. The next improvement on this rude mode was that of forming a regular furnace, of which there were two sorts. The first, where the furnace was placed at the mouth of the shaft, and the escaping air was brought over the fire, which, of course, did not in any way affect the column of air in the shaft itself, and was, consequently, valueless; the second was that of burning a small fire at the bottom of the upcast shaft. All these, however, have been abolished for regular furnaces built in the shafts. Such furnaces should be separated from the inflammable coal by well-built brick arches, placed one over the other. The dimensions of these furnaces are very various, some are 4 ft., others 5, 6, and 7 ft. wide; they are always put at the bottom of the upcast shaft, their object being to raise the temperature of the column of air in that shaft. The question now arises, ought the air to be passed under, through, or above the fire? On this point there are a variety of opinions; in all cases, however, where the air is fouled, from the presence of carbureted hydrogen, it should not be allowed to come near the fire, but should be carried over it in a dumb drift, completely isolated from the furnace the heated air, from which should join the shaft some distance above. The furnace should be fed by a current of fresh air brought especially into the mine for the purpose. Such an arrangement prevents all chance of an explosion. In ventilating by furnaces, the temperature of the upcast is often raised from 140° to 150° Fahr., which gives so great an excess in favour of the upcast that the current of air is abundant. A modification, and a great improvement on the ordinary form of ventilating furnace, has been lately put up at the Hetton Colliery. This new furnace is very large, being 26 ft. in length, and has this great advantage, amongst others, that the bars can be easily cleaned by raking the fire from one part of the furnace to the other, an operation which in the usual furnace it is not easy to perform without putting out the fire.

PLAIN PAPERS ON GEOLOGY—No. I.

BY THOMAS STRUTHERS.

STRATIFIED ROCKS.—There is abundant evidence to prove that the stratified, or aqueous rocks, were originally deposited in water as layers of sediment, and afterwards more or less compacted by the pressure of superincumbent materials, by heat, by chemical processes, or otherwise, and elevated to their present position by volcanic agency, forming our sandstones, slates, &c., the limestones having, for the most part, been secreted from the waters by a sort of animal chemistry. These water-formed rocks are classified in accordance with their age, organic contents, and mineral composition. The oldest, or *jurid* in order, are denominated primary, those that succeed are termed secondary, and they are followed by the tertiary and post-tertiary. To indicate peculiarities connected with their fossil contents, the primary rocks are distinguished as Palaeozoic—i.e., containing antique life; the secondary, as Mesozoic, middle life; the tertiary, as Cainozoic, recent life; and to the post-tertiary we may apply the term Anthropozic, human life. To indicate the prevailing forms of life during successive stages of the earth's history, we may embrace these rocks in four ages—The age of fishes, the age of reptiles, the age of mammals, and the age of man. With reference to their composition, the stratified rocks are usually classed as argillaceous (clayey), siliceous (flinty), calcareous (limy), and carbonaceous (coaly); but it must be understood that not unfrequently two or more of these properties may be combined in the same rock—thus, for example, we have calcareous sandstone, carbonaceous shale, and so on. Taken in detail, the stratified rocks are arranged into systems, which are again divided into groups, sub-groups, &c. The terms employed to designate the different systems are, like the alphabet of our language, a piece of patchwork, some bearing reference to the colour or composition of particular rocks, others to localities in which they are typically developed, or to their relative order of superposition. In geological nomenclature we recognise also a number of German miners' terms, introduced by Werner, and not a few English provincial terms, adopted by William Smith, the founder of the geological doctrine of the "succession of life in time," while, indeed, almost every mining district has contributed some technical term to the *omnium gatherum* of the geological vocabulary. To apprehend correctly what is meant by the terms "system" and "group," let us go back in imagination to any particular geological epoch, and conceive the earth's surface as consisting of a series of watery hollows and land areas, differently distributed from those of the present day; the former containing their peculiar types of aquatic life, and strewn with representatives of the terrestrial plants and animals of the period, swept by rivers into these aqueous reservoirs along with the earthy *detritus*, of which the stratified rocks mainly consist. Volcanic agency, ever more or less active, may produce partial oscillations, in some cases raising, and in others depressing these basins of deposit, and it may be, here and there scattering from sub-aerial insular volcanic craters, showers of dust and ashes, or discharging from their submerged flanks streams of molten lava, that become interstratified with the materials more gradually accumulated by aqueous agency. The various instruments of change, operating in some cases gradually, and in others suddenly, after the lapse of ages, produce a decided alteration in the relative distribution of sea and land, and, consequently, of climate. New races of plants and animals gradually take the place of those that had died out under the influence of adverse circumstances. A volume of the geologic history of the earth has been completed, the various layers of rock matter are its leaves, and the organic remains they contain its pictorial illustrations and chronological data. Fragmentary, no doubt, are these wrecks of the past life of the globe, and inexplicable they may appear to the unskilled observer. It is the task of the geologist to disinter the rock-entombed remnants of former denizens of the earth, the air, and the water, to link together their scattered bones, to inspire their shrunken forms with the breath of life, to revive the blighted foliage of many a graceful shrub and noble tree, and assign to each and all their places in a picture of the epoch of which they constituted a distinctive feature.

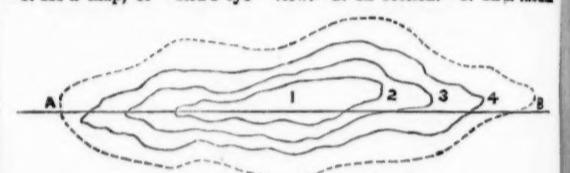
Such a picture would represent the restored aspect of what has been called a geological "formation" or "system," which is made up of subordinate groups of strata, bearing some analogy to each other in their organic remains, and it may be in lithological features, but not exactly identical in either; for even in the now apparently stable condition of the earth's surface, judging from our experience of the present, we are led to the conclusion that partial changes are taking place, and producing modifications

of the order of things, which, however, will be superseded only after the lapse of a protracted period, at least so long as the present laws of Nature continue in force. Thus, the lower and upper beds of a system may present a difference of lithological aspect, and contain some organic remains of a dissimilar character; but both will exhibit certain physical features, and be distinguished by containing certain species in common, which will stamp them as equally the products of one geological era, during which the same general conditions exerted a controlling influence. Considerable areas of the submerged basins of a particular period will be elevated, and form dry land in succeeding eras, while other portions may continue under water. The latter are overlaid by the deposits of a newer formation, while the former remain as the surface rocks; so that in one district of a country we may find at the surface rocks of Silurian age, and in another Old Red Sandstone; or, it may be, strata embraced in the Carboniferous system; and such a statement will account for the fact that the whole series of stratified rocks is not found complete in one locality. To have a correct understanding of the position and mode of occurrence of the stratified rocks we must fix in our minds the idea of an original hollow or water bed of greater or less extent, gradually filled up with a series of deposits, argillaceous, siliceous, calcareous, and, it may be, carbonaceous, as well as of a mixed character, derived partly from the land by the transporting power of rivers, and partly from the water by the secreting power of living creatures, such as molluscs, foraminifera, and coral-forming zoophytes. The oldest, or first formed of these deposits, would, as a matter of course, occupy the bottom of the basin, while the newer overlaid them. The upheaving power of volcanic action, in many cases accompanied by the eruption of masses of rock matter, exerted over portions of this basin will have the effect not only of elevating those portions above the waters, but of giving them a form according to the outline of the area affected, as well as to the extent and method of the force, while agencies taking effect subsequent to their upheaval, particularly such an agency as denudation—that is, the destructive power of water or ice—will also be found to have contributed in no ordinary degree to the peculiar arrangement of the stratified rocks of the earth's crust.

By the operation of such causes it is not unusual to find the strata, particularly of the Carboniferous system, arranged in a basin-like form, the highest beds being the most circumscribed in their superficial range, and occupying a central position, the lower forming successive zones round them, and all dipping or sloping towards the centre of the basin, at a greater or less angle, according to its configuration. This will not be found invariably the case, but it is well to set out with this idea. A careful examination of the strata will, in most cases, present many phenomena, resulting from peculiarities connected with the deposition of the materials of which they consist, such as the wider distribution of the finer grained sediment, composed of sand or clay, and the more local character of the coarser grits, conglomerates, and breccias, as also the thinning out of particular beds, and the varying mineral composition of others; while not less striking will be the evidence of volcanic action during, and subsequent to, the formation of the strata, as indicated by the presence of igneous rocks of various ages, either in the form of dykes or flats, as well as by numerous dislocations, too well known to the practical miner, the originally horizontal or inclined strata being, in many instances, so much disturbed as to render a detailed geological examination of particular districts a work of considerable difficulty and uncertainty.

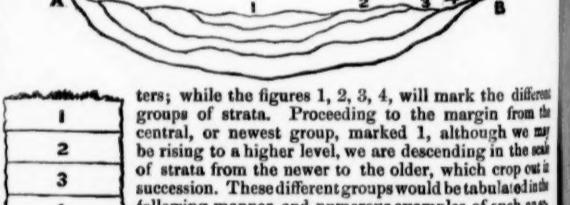
The denuding agency of ice during the Newer Pliocene glacial period will be found to have exerted a powerful modifying effect; here levelling the surface, or scooping out deep valleys or lake beds, and there piling up immense heaps of clay, sand, and gravel, intermingled with fragments of rock: nor we overlook the evidence of denudation by which portions of the sea-bottom elevated during the period had been affected. So powerful, indeed, have these disturbing forces been, that in many instances there is good reason to believe the original boundary of the basin of deposit, even when not submerged in our present seas, has been completely changed; while occasionally a few fragmentary patches are all that remain to attest the former existence of whole systems of strata now swept away.

Such a basin of deposit as described may be represented in three ways—1. As a map, or "bird's-eye" view.—2. In section.—3. In a tabular



form. For example, let us suppose that within this dotted line the basin-like arrangement of strata referred to is recognised. We would look for the upper, or newer beds, in the centre, as represented by the figure 1; while the lower beds would crop out, or reach the surface in succession, till the extreme limit of the basin were reached. The marginal beds, 4, might either rest upon igneous or stratified rocks, or to be overlaid by the former, according to circumstances.

To exhibit a sectional view of the various strata contained in this basin in a line from A to B, we may indicate the boundary rocks by these lines:



ters; while the figures 1, 2, 3, 4, will mark the different groups of strata. Proceeding to the margin from the central, or newest group, marked 1, although we may be rising to a higher level, we are descending in the scale of strata from the newer to the older, which crop out in succession. These different groups would be tabulated in the following manner, and numerous examples of such arrangement of stratified rocks occur in all parts of the world.

MANCHESTER ASSOCIATION FOR THE PREVENTION OF STEAM-BORNE EXPLOSIONS.—At the ordinary monthly meeting of this association, on Tuesday (Mr. W. Fairbairn, C.E., in the chair), the report of the chief engineer, Mr. L. E. Fletcher, stated that during the past month 311 engines had been examined, and 418 boilers; 20 of the latter being examined specially, six of them tested with hydraulic pressure. Of the 418 boiler examinations, 235 defects had been discovered, 4 of them being dangerous. In one of the defects the boiler was an elephant, and one of the lower tubes gave way over the fire, the plate bulging downwards into a cup shape, and the metal, which was originally three-eighths of an inch in thickness, being wasted away to three-sixteenths. The feed-water was very sedimentary, and in this construction of boiler, as, indeed, in all those fired underneath, the sediment is apt to lodge in the most dangerous part—immediately over the fire. Instances of the danger attending the plan of external firing are constantly occurring. It may be added that the plates of the lower cylinders in these elephant boilers frequently become burnt away, in consequence of the steam being confined in the lower chamber, through imperfect circulation of the water. Also these boilers are extravagant in their consumption of fuel, and very dependent on the integrity of their brickwork setting, which is found to be a frequent source of trouble and expense; while the arrangement of fittings, such as water-gauges, &c., is complicated and inconvenient.

Amongst the cases of deficiency of water was one which was due to the watchman keeping up the fire within the boiler without noticing that the water was out of sight in the gauge glass. It appears that the boiler lost its water through leakage at the back pressure valve. Owing, however, to the inlet being nearly as high as the furnace crown, the damage done to them was but trifling. Where the feed is introduced little above the level of the furnace-crowns, they cannot be laid bare by the water either being drained or syphoned out. Another case arose from the failure of the waste pipe for the blow-out at the bottom of the boiler discharged into which the attendant's opening the blow-out the brickwork blew up, and he was unable to get within reach to close the tap, so that the furnace-crowns were laid bare and became overheated. In consequence, however, of the boiler being fitted with a low-water safety-valve, which let off the pressure of the steam on the water's falling below the proper level, the injury to the furnace-crowns was very trifling. Had blowing-out from the surface of the water been adopted instead of from the bottom, the furnace-crowns could not have been laid bare. These two cases of injury afford an illustration of the advantage of the plan recommended by the Association of introducing the feed, as well as blowing-out, at the surface of the water, and it is thought that it would be well to this arrangement generally adopted.

For the present month Mr. Fletcher has to report three explosions, from which 15 lives have been lost, and also 25 persons injured. Not one of the boilers was under the charge of this association. The scene of the explosion has been personally visited in each case, and the cause investigated. The boiler which exploded in one of the instances was of the vertical furnace class, and heated by the flames passing off from three iron furnaces. These flames played in the first instance on the outside of the boiler, then passed through three neck openings into a central internal descending flue, and thence to the culvert to the chimney. Mr. Fletcher observes that this is a dangerous class of boiler, upon which it is very inconvenient for complete examination, and the plates at the bottom, upon which it sits, may be seriously corroded without detection, unless the boiler is lifted from its seat. Also the intense flames from the reverberatory furnaces impinge directly

*Notes from a Lecture by Prof. W. W. SMITH, at the Royal School of Mines.

MINING IN AUSTRALASIA—MONTHLY SUMMARY.

[FROM OUR OWN CORRESPONDENT]

upon the shell externally, and the fires cannot be controlled as in an ordinary grate-boiler, while in addition, from its height and its being enveloped in brick work, the best arrangement of water-gauge becomes inapplicable, as well as the fittings generally inconvenient and inaccessible. But not only is this class of boiler from these circumstances peculiarly liable to explosion, but, when it occurs, the consequences are peculiarly serious. The boiler standing erect is enveloped in a shell of brick work some 15 or 20 ft. high, and surrounded by three or more furnaces, from the flames passing off from which it is heated. The temperature of these furnaces is very high, and their fire-brick lining, as well as the masses of iron with which they are charged, is frequently at a glowing white heat. When the boiler exploded its brick work casing, as well as the furnaces, are demolished, and the debris is showered in every direction, so that more injury is done by the flight of the fragments, than by that of the boiler itself. When it is added to this that these boilers are frequently placed in the very heart of crowded works, and that, on account of the continual smoke and steam around them, it is thought that the dangerous character of these boilers will be somewhat apparent. The boiler was an old one, and had been repeatedly patched; while the edges of the plates where the fracture had taken place were reduced by corrosion for a considerable distance to the thickness of a sheet of paper. The position of the rents was below water line. This corrosion, which had taken place externally at the side of the boiler, as well as at the top-plate at the bottom on which the boiler was seated, was due to leakage, and must have been going on for a considerable time, while the greater portion of it could have been detected by competent inspection in the external flue. The explosion, in short, resulted simply from the depauperated condition of the boiler. In another case the jury brought in a verdict of "Accidental Death," attributing the explosion to over-pressure of steam, consequent on the imperfect condition of the safety-valve, appending to their verdict a recommendation to the effect:—That a legislative enactment should be passed compelling boiler-makers to stamp on their boilers the pressure at which they might safely be worked; and, further, that the Act should allow none but properly-educated and licensed engineers to have charge of engines and boilers, and, in addition, should provide for the periodical examination of all boilers by duly qualified inspectors.

Ironworks appear to maintain their position at the head of the list, both for the number and fatality of their explosions, and, under these circumstances, it may not be unwise to re-consider the policy now generally adopted at these works—that of employing the more primitive description of engineering arrangements, in preference to those of a more modern character, and now widely adopted in other branches of industry. True economy in engineering matters is only to be found in the employment of the best materials and workmanship. Where boilers of a superior class have been adopted, they have been found to be productive of great economy of working, as well as of human life, and there can be no reason to doubt that these advantages would follow their general adoption at ironworks. A very frequent source of explosion, and one by no means peculiar to any particular class of works, is that of having no spare boilers, so that the Sunday becomes the only day for examination and repair, when the time is too short for either to be satisfactorily done, and thus the boilers are worked on in a dangerous state. Apart from other considerations, which need not here be entered upon, the practice of Sunday work is bad engineering. Boilers are injured by being suddenly cooled; and should never either be emptied when hot, or filled with cold water. Examinations and repairs of the plates, if hastily done, are sure to be scamped, and patches temporarily and insecurely hung on with bolts get to be substituted for soundly riveted plates. A great many instances of this might be given. At one of the inquests consequent on the explosion of a boiler referred to above, it was stated by the workmen that the boilers were so hot on a Sunday that they could only remain in them for a short time, and frequently had to come out for fresh air. In another case, in which a boiler covered with bolted patches, as just described, exploded a short time since, the engineer informed Mr. Fletcher that the Sunday was his regular day for getting inside his boiler and going up the flues, when the heat was more than he could bear for any length of time, yet the poor man was committed for manslaughter. The simple plan of having spare boilers, to allow time for examination and repairs, would prevent many explosions. It must not be lost sight of, that explosions do not occur to those who are careful in the management of their boilers, and, therefore, it may fairly be asked if the carelessness of those who allow their boilers to explode is just to the body of steam users as a whole? It cannot but be feared that the continued occurrence of these fatal explosions, will at length provoke the Government to undertake a system of inspection, and however wisely such a course may be carried out, it could hardly fail to prove irksome to the steam user, and to cramp the many careful for the careless few. It, therefore, becomes the duty of all owners of steam-boilers either to have them examined by competent men of their own, or else to avail themselves of the periodical inspection of some independent and voluntary association, while, should there be no such association in their locality, they should then assist in establishing one—an effort which this association would gladly aid.

IMMENSE CASTING IN AMERICA.—The 20-in. gun, cast at the Fort Pitt Foundry, Pittsburgh, was first suggested by Major Rodman in his report on the trial of the first 15-in. gun, and has long been a matter of theory.

The length of the rough casting is 26 ft.; its maximum diameter 66 in.; and its weight 180,000 pounds.

The length of the finished gun will be 20 ft.; its maximum diameter 64 in.; and its weight 115,000 pounds.

The diameter of the rough casting at the muzzle will be 4 feet, and that of the finished gun at the muzzle 34 in.

The whole length of the bore is 210 in.

The bore will terminate in a semi-ellipse, whose major axis will be 30 in., and whose minor axis will be 20 in.

The mould consists of a flask (made in four pieces, bolted and clamped firmly together), and of the sand which it contains, which forms the matrix of the gun.

The flask weighs twenty-eight tons, and the sand ten.

The mould is made by placing the flask over a wooden pattern, having the form of the rough casting, and then ramming the sand between the pattern and the flask.

The pattern is then withdrawn, the mould is "slacked," or smoothed over, and then washed with a black coating made of ground coal.

The mould is then placed in an oven, and baked until it has the hardness of an ordinary soft red brick;

this mass of sand was rammed, finished, blacked, and placed in the oven, by ten men, in twenty hours.

The flask being removed from its ovens and clamped firmly together, is placed vertically in a pit, made for its reception.

Thus disposed, the muzzle end of the mould is on a level with the mouth of the pit, and the centre line of the gun is perpendicular.

The pit which receives the flask is 28½ feet deep, and 14 feet in diameter.

Inside it, near the bottom, grates bars radiate like the spokes of a wheel.

Underneath on the outside these flues communicate a draft.

Another flue, leading from the top of the pit, carries off the smoke.

The object is to maintain a strong fire around the flask.

This is one of the precautions in the process of casting guns.

The core is a long, hollow, cast-iron fluted barrel, having vertically in the centre of the mould.

It is anteriorly coated—firstly, by a coil of three-eighths inch rope, closely wrapped, and a mile in length; and, secondly, with a lating of stiff clay, which is put on to separate the cast-iron of the barrel from the molten iron of the gun.

The rope is used to keep the clay out of the grooves, and, by presenting a rough surface, to prevent it slipping off.

The groove allows the gas (mainly hydrogen), formed by the contact of the melted metal and the clay, to escape freely at the upper end into the air, where it burns with quite a large flame.

After the castings are on, the core is likewise baked hard in an oven.

Its outside diameter is 19 inches, one inch less than the finished diameter of the bore, thus allowing

half an inch all round for the completion of the latter.

The core barrel is kept cool by means of a stream of cold water circulating throughout its whole length.

A small pipe, extending almost to the bottom of the core, is traversed by the water, which rising fills the barrel, and passes off at the top.

During the casting, the flow of water was sixty gallons per minute.

Three large reverberatory or air furnaces are used.

Two are of the capacity of twenty-five tons each.

They are to be the largest in the world.

It was built expressly for this casting.

It was charged with thirty-nine tons, and each of the smaller furnaces was charged with twenty-three and a half tons.

From these furnaces the iron is conducted through iron troughs, lined with clay, into a common pool near the pit.

Thence it is conducted by two troughs into the gates of the mould.

These gates are two openings, 3 inches in diameter, extending all the way down the mould outside the matrix of the gun.

They communicate with the gun proper by means of smaller gates, cut through at intervals of 15 inches, all the way up.

The iron is then conducted first into the bottom of the mould, and then through the side-gates, respectively, up to the top, as the metal rises in the mould.

The difference between the reverberatory and the cupola furnace is that in the former the fuel and iron are separate, and there is a natural draft through a large stack.

In the latter, the fuel and iron are together and the draft is made by blast.

Two cranes are used in lifting this heavy mound, and in taking the gun from the pit.

They have each the capacity of forty tons.

They are worked by the steam engine, which not only hoists and lowers the load, but likewise causes the cranes to revolve.

The metal from which the gun is manufactured is the Junta iron, from the Bloomfield-Junta and Rodman furnaces.

It has been once remelted before being charged into furnaces for the gun.

The iron from which it is constructed is thus all of one grade.

The furnaces were fired at 5 A.M.; the metal was melted by 11 o'clock.

Whilst the iron was running in the mould, it was constantly stirred by men with long poles of oak.

The object of this was to relieve it of the gas often formed in gun-irons, and which, if not removed, creates globular cavities in the mass of the gun, and thereby destroys its uniformity.

The casting commenced at twenty-four minutes after twelve.

Eighteen bushels of coal were allowed to each ton of iron to make the fusion.

The furnace No. 5 was first opened, and then the furnaces No. 6 and No. 4; four men with long, narrow puddling sticks, collected the scum and scoria which gathered on the surface of the liquid iron.

Small quantities of iron were thrown into the pit from time to time, in order to light the gas which escaped from the iron pipe surrounding the core barrel was in a constant state of ignition, and formed a pale, luminous crown of blue flame; the last furnace was closed at 45½ minutes past 12, and the time occupied in the casting was 21½ minutes.

The temperature of the stream of water was at the commencement, 36°; at the moment the casting was over, it stood at 42°; 4 minutes after the casting was over, it was at 50°; 8 minutes

after the casting, at 51°; 25 minutes after the casting, at 51°; and 30 minutes after the others, Nos. 4 and 5, were stopped almost immediately after.

When the casting was completed a blacking, consisting of ground coal, was strewn over the top to prevent chilling.

During the operation the gas escaped freely from the vent-hole in the flask, which is perforated in a thousand places, ¼ inch in diameter.

Three furnaces only were employed.

A fourth furnace was reserved in case of any accident, but there was no necessity for its use.

Only 2 or 3 tons were left over after the casting was completed.

The fourth furnace had a supply of 10 tons, and a fifth 12 tons, which not being completely filled, owing to the gradual settling of the liquid mass, was supplied with fresh liquid iron, or, in other words, the workmen "filled up the shanks."

All the fuel employed was the Pittsburgh bituminous coal.

The drawing of the core was to take place about 24 hours after the casting.

In this operation the supply of water is suddenly stopped off.

The barrel is much expanded by heat.

A large strain is put on the steam crane, almost sufficient to draw the barrel out on the re-admission of the water.

The barrel cools quickly, shrinks with rapidity, the strain of the crane springs it out about 2 ft. and it is then drawn out.

The buildings, cranes, furnaces, patterns, flasks and lathe had to be entirely new-constructed, in order to accommodate themselves to the size of the gun.

The lathe is 60 ft. long, 8 ft. wide over the shears, and is driven by two engines, 6-in. cylinders, 12-in. stroke.

In the foundation there are 120,000 bricks.

The costly nature of the gun may be appreciated when it is remembered that the lathe which merely turns and finishes it cost between \$10,000 and \$15,000.

No statement can at present be given respecting the tenacity and hardness of the metal.

It is to be remarked, that by the interior cooling principle adopted the hardest and best iron is that nearest the surface of the bore.

The fact of the gun being cast hollow secures this.

The iron of which the gun is cast was thoroughly tested, in the same manner as that of the first 15 in.

The sample by which the gun is to be proved is to be taken from the sinking-head, and the rough end cut off from the muzzle.

The powder used here is 13-16ths of an inch in diameter, and the gun will burn not less than 100 lbs.

The gun is expected to be ready in the latter part of May, and the value is estimated at \$30,000.

The expense for each charge of the gun may be roughly placed at \$75, allowing \$25 for powder,

and \$50 for projectiles.

Fifteen or sixteen men will be required to manage the gun when completed, nine being employed in the loading, and six or seven in traversing the gun.

The solid shot will weigh 1000 lbs., the shell 775 lbs.—*Journal of the Franklin Institute.*

THAMES TUNNEL COMPANY.—Receipts for the week ending April 9, £6,72. 2d.; number of passengers, 15,926.

during the three months ending the 20th instant; 5000 tons will complete our stock for the engines for eighteen months. Everything connected with contracts and machinery is paid for, with some trifling exceptions."

FORTUNE COPPER.—Capt. Penberthy reports, Fremantle, Jan. 29:—The 40 is driving south-west of the old working shaft, by six men, at 21.10s. per fathom; during 2½ tons of copper ore per fathom. The north-east end, in the 40, is driving by four men, at 21.10s. per fathom; lode 18 in. wide, 12 of which are solid yellow copper ore. The stope in the back of this level, south-west of the shaft, is working by two men, lode 3 ft. wide, producing 2½ tons of copper ore per fathom, of good quality. The last crushing from the Morning Star reef produced from 30 tons of stone no less than 1581 ozs. 2 dwt. of pure gold, or nearly 44 ozs. to the ton. This was by no means an unusual yield, the claims having on this reef averaged from the commencement fully 20 ozs. to the ton, and that with the rudest and most inefficient machinery.

Another letter says—"The gold fields have maintained their reputation during the past month. Several very handsome nuggets have been found—one of 192 ozs. was got by some Germans near Maryborough; two were unearthed at Raywood, near Bendigo, weighing 168 ozs. and 62 ozs. respectively; another was found at Korong of 81 ozs., besides several smaller ones. The Ballarat deep leads continue to improve. The Kohinoor Company have got into some very rich ground. In one day lately they washed out 300 ozs., and in four days they obtained 943 ozs. One of their dividends during the month amounted to the large figure of 2151, per share, besides a reserve of 700.

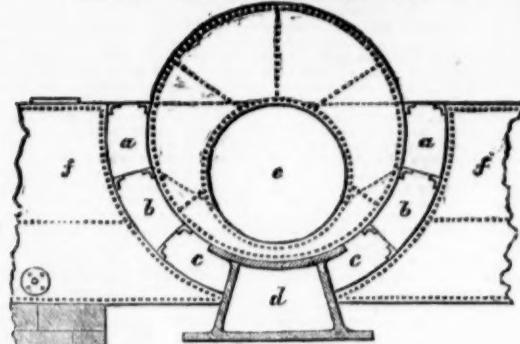
Several of the other companies have also been very fortunate. Many of the quartz reefs are likewise proving very rich—in some cases 12 and 20 ozs. per ton are talked of. One crushing of 100 tons yielded 1700 ozs. of gold. At the Bine Mountains a crushing of 60 tons gave 400 ozs. It appears from the gold fields statistics for the past year that the mean number of miners employed during the year was nearly 92,368, and the total quantity of gold exported 1,627,066 ozs., which, at 41. per ounce, gives 70L. 9s. 2d. per man per annum; for 1862 it was 672. 17s. 1d. per man; and for 1861 the rate per man was 71s. 15s. 1d."

ADELAIDE, FEB. 25.—Since the rise in copper at home, noted per last mail, a considerable advance is established, and both the Wallaroo and Burra Companies' prices are 99s. per ton at the Port. Galvanised iron is saleable at quotations. Wire has advanced, and is scarce at 16s. 10s. per ton.

The reports from the mines in the North continue very favourable from the Yudanamutana Mines. Section 135s, Henry's shaft, is yielding some rich black ore, from the 15. At the 20 the same lode is going down. Upon Section 135s, Mary's shaft, the stopes are yielding their usual quantity of rich ore. A considerable quantity has been dispatched from this mine during the past month. Blinman Mine continues to yield ore in large quantities. There are several large piles of ore ready for the furnace. Smelting was commenced last week with the most satisfactory results. Five charges of 22 cwt. each, were passed in 24 hours, and then some for regulus. It came out nearly pure metal. The ore is very easily fused. The sample sent down is from 80 to 90 per cent. The road for the traction-engines is steadily progressing. One of the engines, with workmen, is at the Willochra Creek, making a cutting to pass.—*South Australian Advertiser*, Feb. 26.

TALISKER MINE.—News has arrived to the effect that a new lode, surpassing anything yet opened on this mine, was discovered and opened last week. It lies to the eastward of the company's offices, and has been traced some 50 yards. The new captain, Mr. W. H. Price, appears likely to give every satisfaction, being evidently determined to reduce the expenditure considerably, and at the same time increase the returns, so soon as the necessary preparations are completed. The latest assays of the shipments show a gradually increasing amount of gold in proportion to the depth attained, which, if continuing at the same rate, must greatly increase the value of ore in deep sinking. There is another metal found mixed with the ore, the nature of which has not yet been determined by the assayers here. The general impression is that it is nickel, and a button of it is to be forwarded to London to settle the point. The following is an extract from a communication of the captain's of the 1

PATENT FLUE AND TANK BOILER.

JEWELL'S PATENT FLUE AND TANK BOILER
A PLAN FOR ECONOMISING THE CONSUMPTION OF FUEL
IN STEAM BOILERS.

The advantages of this boiler, an illustrated description of which was published in the MINING JOURNAL of October 3, are obvious.

It is provided with WROUGHT IRON FLUES, conveying the fire entirely over the surface of boiler below the water line, and wholly doing away with lime coming in contact with any part of the boiler, lime having been found to destroy the boiler plates before any other parts are the worse for wear. This boiler has four additional flues to the plan at present adopted, thus affording a FAR GREATER AMOUNT OF HEATING SURFACE, and MORE EFFECTUALLY CONSUMING the GASES. Between the boilers a wrought-iron tank is fixed, extending the whole length of the boilers, for containing water for feed; this water will pass into the boiler at any temperature required. This boiler will not require anyone to enter the flues for cleansing, as the flues are provided with shifting stoppers at the ends, enabling a person to cleanse the flues even while the boiler is hot; this plan answers for any size or length boiler, and will do away with the cold water feed, which has been the cause of so many accidents. These flues are made of wrought or cast-iron. On the top of the tank a pipe will be placed, to take the waste steam that escapes and carry it to the clavert. The flues for a 6 ft. boiler will be 2 ft. long, and the usual width. It must be remembered that the tank once hot will remain a hot body, with the same amount of heat that passed off before in the brick flues. I would observe that there will be no more water taken from these tanks than will be required for the feed, consequently no more cold water will pass into these tanks than will be necessary for feeding. It is believed this plan will SAVE TEN FEET in the LENGTH of BOILER, and it has been proved to EFFECT A SAVING of rather MORE than ONE-THIRD in the CONSUMPTION of FUEL. These boilers, with flues and tanks, can be supplied on the most reasonable terms.

NOTE.—This plan of Flues and Tank Boiler will be found very beneficial for MARINE ENGINES; the tank would receive the water from the sea, and would not only become hot for feed, but would be the means of preventing in a great measure the salt from passing into the boiler. Where great quantities of hot water are required for other purposes, these tanks will also be found very beneficial.

JOHN JEWELL.

Basset Foundry, Devonport, September 30, 1863.

* * Mr. JEWELL is PREPARED to GRANT the ROYALTY to any parties, for certain districts of the United Kingdom.

CREASE'S PATENT EXCAVATING MACHINERY, for SUPERSEDING the SLOW and EXPENSIVE USE of MANUAL LABOUR in SINKING SHAFTS, DRIVING LEVELS, TUNNELLING, &c., is guaranteed to drive through any rock or average hardness at a minimum rate of 1 fm. per diem, and to sink shafts at the rate of 2 fms. in three days.

Mr. CREASE will undertake contracts for sinking shafts, driving levels, &c., at an enormous reduction of time and great saving in cost.

Applications to be addressed (for the present) to the patentee, Mr. E. S. CREASE, Tavistock, Devon.

By providing the power of calculating the time and cost to explore a certain depth and extent of ground, speculation in mining will be assimilated to commercial pursuits, with this unmistakable advantage—that when the ground has been once carefully and judiciously selected, and operations properly and systematically carried out for its development, there would be far less chance of unsatisfactory results than are met with by merchants and manufacturers in the usual routine of their business. As this important invention must beneficially interest the landowners, mine proprietors, merchants, and miners, we hope it will meet with immediate adoption.—*Mining Journal*.

BASTIER'S PATENT CHAIN PUMP. APPARATUS FOR RAISING WATER ECONOMICALLY, ESPECIALLY APPLICABLE TO ALL KINDS OF MINES, DRAINAGE, WELLS, MARINE, FIRE, &c.

J. U. BASTIER begs to call the attention of proprietors of mines, engineers, architects, armers, and the public in general, to his new pump, the cheapest and most efficient ever introduced to public notice. The principle of this new pump is simple and effective, and its action is so arranged that accidental breakage is impossible. It occupies less space than any other kind of pump in use, does not interfere with the working of the shafts, and unites lightness with a degree of durability almost imperishable. By means of this hydraulic machine water can be raised economically from wells of any depth; it can be worked either by steam-engine or any other motive power, by quick or slow motion. The following statement presents some of the results obtained by this hydraulic machine, as daily demonstrated by use:

1.—It utilises from 90 to 92 per cent. of thermometric power.

2.—Its price and expense of installation is 75 per cent. less than the usual pump employed for mining purposes.

3.—It occupies a very small space.

4.—It raises water from any depth with the same facility and economy.

5.—It raises with the water, and without the slightest injury to the apparatus, sand, mud, wood, stone, and every object of a smaller diameter than its tube.

6.—It is easily removed, and requires no cleaning or attention.

A mining pump can be seen daily at work, at Wheal Concord Mine, South Sydenham, Devon, near Tavistock; and a shipping pump at Woodsdale Graving Dock Company (Limited), Birkenhead, near Liverpool.

J. U. BASTIER, sole manufacturer, will CONTRACT to ERECT his PATENT PUMP at HIS OWN EXPENSE, and will GUARANTEE IT FOR ONE YEAR, or will GRANT LICENSES to manufacturers, mining proprietors, and others, for the USE of his INVENTION.

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STATISTICS OF AND OBSERVATIONS UPON THE MINES OF CORNWALL AND DEVON. For 1861, 1862, and 1863.

By THOMAS SPARGO, Mining Engineer, Stock and Sharebroker, Gresham House, Old Broad-street, London, E.C.

This work contains the following particulars, viz.—The geological position, present prospects, name of purser, manager, and secretary, with annual returns of each mine during the last three years, and total dividends paid to the present time.

It is illustrated by a map of Cornwall, showing its parliamentary division, and population; geological district maps, divided into four sections, in which are shown the boundary lines of each parish, height of hills, source of rivers, &c., together with maps of St. Just, St. Ives, Marazion, Gwinear, Chiverton, Bodmin, Liskeard, Devon Great Consols, and Tavistock mining districts, showing boundary lines of each seat, with the lodes, elevans, and cross-roads traversing the same. It also contains longitudinal and transverse sections of the Dolcoath Mine (kindly supplied by Capt. Charles Thomas), with report upon the same; sections of the workings at Botallack, corrected down to the present time by the manager (S. H. James, Esq.), with historical account of same; surface plans and sections of all the leading mines in both counties, with observations upon each, including geological map of the Fowey Consols district (kindly furnished by Major Davis, R.M.), as also all the information necessary for the guidance of those unacquainted with mining.

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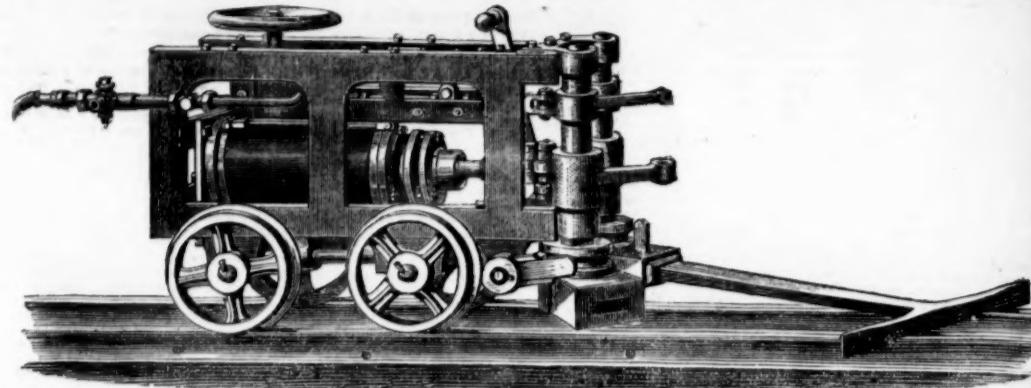
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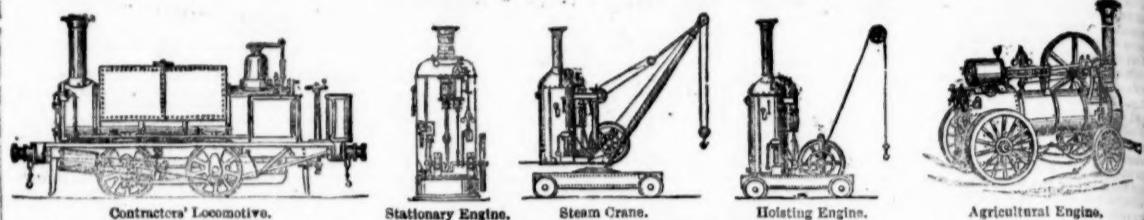


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Prices complete, delivered free in Glasgow, Hull, Liverpool, or London.

6 horse power, pair of cylinders 4½ in. diameter × 9 in. stroke..... £300	15 horse power, pair of cylinders 7½ in. diameter × 14 in. stroke..... £390
9 " " 5½ " × 11 " 350	21 " " 9½ " × 14 " 690
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